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one book, entitled "The International Mind." This book, published by Scribners, should be in the hands of all peace workers.

"The American Institute of International Law" is the name of a new society for the study and codification of international laws which affect the welfare of the twenty-one American republics. The officers of the provisional bureau opened in Washington are: Senator Elihu Root, honorary president; Dr. James Brown Scott, president; Alejandro Alvarez, of Chile, secretarygeneral; Luis Anderson. of Costa Rica, treasurer.

President W. H. P. Faunce, of Brown University, one of our best known workers for international peace, is to

spend most of the present academic year abroad. He sailed November 1 for Egypt. Later he plans to visit India, China, Java, and Japan, where he will study at first hand Oriental problems in the light of their obvious effects upon Occidental life.

The Wisconsin State Peace Society, the preparation for which has been in progress for a year past, was finally and permanently organized at Madison, Friday evening, October 25. The Baroness von Suttner was present and delivered a noble address, and the organization of the society was accomplished with great enthusiasm. The Hon. John B. Winslow, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Wisconsin, was elected president, and Prof. Chester Iloyd Jones, of the University of Wisconsin, secretary.

Report of the International Peace Bureau on the Events of the Year Related to War and Peace.

By Dr. A. Gobat, Director.

After a brief reference to the failure of the congress at Rome last year, to the report for 1911, and the question of the Armenian massacres, the report says:

The year which we are reviewing is not one of which civilization can boast. The social struggle has not been allayed. The war of politics, which the peoples have borne so long, under the form of armed peace, has added to its sad record a war of conquest—that is to say, an act which the peace congresses have always expressly condemned. Furthermore, in several countries, in Europe, in Asia, in America, serious insurrections have arisen.



MAISON COMMUNALE DE PLAINPALAIS, WHERE PUBLIC MEETINGS AND THE CLOSING BANQUET WERE HELD.

At the moment when I was writing the report for the Congress at Rome last year the Moroccan affair was the subject of negotiations between Germany and France. While the diplomats were working out their schemes it was interesting to watch public opinion in the two countries. On the French side it remained calm and dignified. In Germany, where the crisis brought on serious economic disturbances, the press was somewhat nervous, and a section of the Reichstag issued a regrettable manifesto. But I should be doing injustice to the German nation if I should express the least doubt about its pacific disposition. The Moroccan question was not in any way an occasion for war, the less so because an international convention gave to the dispute the character of a purely juridical controversy capable of settlement by a court of arbitration.

The agreement concluded by the diplomats of the two countries, with the coöperation of other interests, was one to be ratified promptly by the two parliaments. It cannot be said that in its discussion wise moderation was observed. Bad humor came out in several speeches. There were expressions whose tone came near to provocation. The attitude of some exhibited a spirit not at all conciliatory. Nevertheless the agreement was ratified. Considering the circumstances to which allusion has just been made, the success obtained by the two governments caused the statesmen who were in the breach to receive the honor of having fulfilled their mission with courage and wisdom, of having resisted the impulsions of irresponsible persons, and of having considered the preservation of peace as the supreme object. The Franco-German convention, which definitively settles, let us hope, the Moroccan question, has become perfect by the fact that the new delimitations of the Congo are completed, or nearly so, by common accord.

Thus we see settled an irritating question which

more than once came near producing a conflagration, although, if Bismarck is to be believed, Morocco is not worth the bones of a single Pomeranian grenadier. It remains, it is true, to conclude an agreement between Spain and France. I shall speak of that further on.

But immediately after the ratification of the Franco-German convention a surprising thing took place. The two governments, by mutual concessions, had procured the satisfactions which they desired, and all Europe was applauding the efforts which had been made to put an end to a most disquieting situation, when Germany announced her intention to increase further both her fleet and her army. Scarcely was one cloud dissipated when a new one arose. And today the solicitude is as great among those who are too ready to believe war near as it was during the critical days of the Moroccan affair. For this new access of military folly, coming immediately after an amicable arrangement between the two nations on whom depends in large measure the preservation of peace, necessarily produces the effect of a menace of war. The reasons given to justify the increase of armaments which will impose new burdens not only upon Germany, but also upon most of the European states, are not at all sufficient. They furnish rather an excuse for those who hesitated to pronounce judgment as to what country is playing the rôle of disturber of the peace in Europe, to form a definite opinion on the

The race is therefore going to continue. Not only is there no wish to stop, but each one will run the faster in order to outstrip his rival. That means for the peoples, already crushed under a load of burdens of every sort, an aggravation of their sufferings and for Europe new anxieties. But we have one consolation: a war would cost much more than the armed peace, as was said the other day in the British House of Commons. But is there not some other way of avoiding war than that of starving and ruining us? the victims of politics cry out. That is not the question, the famous diplomats answer them. Pay up, ye brave folks; you have only the choice of the sauce with which you shall be eaten. It is not exact, furthermore, that armed peace costs less than war. War lasts a few months; armed peace heaps up its burdens ad infinitum.

While France and Germany were making their agreement, Italy was concocting a war. It broke out the very week that the Peace Congress was to meet at Rome. The pacifists just missed being present at the departure of the troops for Tripoli, for the Congress Committee insisted that the congress should not be put off, in spite of the fact that the cholera was raging even at Rome.

We must seek the cause of this war, the first that has dishonored Europe after more than forty years of truce. It has been suggested by diplomacy and by speculation, which is furthermore today the instigator of wars.

The question of Morocco is perhaps not foreign to the Italo-Turkish war. Let us repair to the Algeciras Conference, where an extremely strong part was to be played for France. The future protectrice of the Empire of the Calif had to secure for itself the seizure of the country by inducing the Conference to entrust to it the formal mission of establishing order therein. For this purpose it had need of Italy. Now it was to be presumed that Italy would not break company with its two allies, Germany and Austria, without being brought to it by the prospect of great advantages. One of those

steps was therefore taken in which an unscrupulous diplomacy excels: Tripoli was the price of the adhesion of Italy to the French projects. The latter perhaps hoped that, as a sequence to the act of Algeciras, a similar one would be drawn up for her, concerning the coast of Africa, which she had for a long time coveted, or that she would be able to conclude with France an arrangement similar to that which the latter has made with Great Britain, in order to have granted her a free hand in Morocco in return for the free hand which she herself had accorded to her friend in Egypt. This hope had failed, and it seemed to have been forgotten that Italy had been permitted to cherish a certain dream. So little was this a secret in the country that this agreement was openly invoked in order to induce the Italian government to abandon finally its attitude of expectancy. At the beginning of September, 1911, an Italian deputy wrote to a prominent journal of Geneva: "The moment has come for Italy to proceed according to the arrangements made with France and Great Britain." The Italian press, on its part, openly urged war. In this campaign of bellicose agitation which preceded the sudden attack on the coast of Tripoli, appeal was made first of all to the arrangements to which France and Great Britain had consented, and besides to the consideration that if haste was not made Tripoli might become the prey of another power, which, it was said, would be the suicide of Italy. Furthermore, France and Great Britain, in the naval combinations made by them in regard to the policing of the Mediterranean, passed over in complete silence the rôle which Italy would have to play in this operation, and it was asked at this point, not without bitterness and anger, if the kingdom was really going to be duped.

In spite of all this, the Italian government, although it had certainly made preparations for war during the summer, hesitated to take the final step. What seems to have hastened the fatal decision was a speech made by Mr. Delcassé, Minister of Marine, at the close of a naval review at Toulon, and especially an article in the Dépêche de Toulouse, which disclosed the policy of France and Great Britain in the Mediterranean. From this the conclusion was drawn that to France henceforth belonged the domination of this sea. Italy was mentioned in this article as an eventual enemy, coöperating with her allies, against whom France would enforce her rights of exclusive control. The promises which had been made to Italy could not be denied in a more cavalier way.

Along with the diplomats and politicians the speculators and high finance were active. The King was asked to loan his armies to a band of marauders who had in hand enterprises on the coast of Africa. It was doubtless these who, in the end, by their deadly influence, carried away the government. Let us remember, furthermore, in this connection, that the wars of these last years have been wars of pure speculation. Those which might have broken out would have had, and those which may hereafter occur will have, the same origin. So that, in the last analysis, the nations are enduring the heavy burdens of armed peace for the sake of the speculators and of high finance.

The Italo-Turkish war is characterized by certain peculiarities which permit us to judge it from the point of view of justice and morality, of civilization and humanity. It was not preceded by a declaration of war,

for it cannot be granted that an ultimatum issued at the moment of mobilization, in which Italy presented to Turkey certain vague and general claims, granting her twice twenty-four hours to give satisfaction, is a declaration of war, even if it contained the threat that failing a response within the time specified mobilization would take place without further ceremony, for Turkey could not respond without knowing exactly what Italy demanded. It is true that Italy, like her two allies, did not ratify the convention relating to the opening of hostilities, which was drawn up at the Second Hague Conference. But a declaration of war is a rule of the law of nations established by long usage.

The Italo-Turkish war, again, was let loose without a casus belli. Indeed, the ground alleged, the bad administration of Tripoli by the Turks, is not a casus belli. The law of nations rejects absolutely intervention by armed force in the administration of the interior affairs of a country. And since a large number of Italian pacifists approve the war in which the government has plunged their country and applaud acts of brutality which are characterized as glorious and heroic, I will add that several Peace Congresses have expressly recognized the principle of non-intervention.

Nor does the pretense that they were about to be duped, of which Italian public opinion took advantage to push the government to hostilities, constitute a casus belli. Can the promises of which we have spoken be invoked as an excuse? No; neither this pretended dupery, nor the bad examples set by other powers, can serve as a justification. For violations of the law of nations there is no excuse.

Another peculiarity: Italy pretends to have acquired the right of sovereignty over a country which she does not occupy, to the exclusion of Turkey, which does occupy it

One must also notice the enormous disproportion of the forces mobilized for an expedition announced as a promenade. This is of course the business of the government and of the Finance Minister. But it is proper to inquire, from the humanitarian point of view, if it is not regrettable that superfluous troops should be submitted to the régime of war and exposed to all its hardships.

Finally, the Italo-Turkish war must be noted as the first in which the engines of aviation have been employed in throwing bombs on masses of men not engaged in acts of war and upon women and children. It is true that Italy, following the example of her allies, has not ratified the convention of the Second Hague Conference concerning the throwing of projectiles from balloons. But this process is so cowardly and so cruel that it ought to be excluded from the means of war used by a civilized nation. These cruelties are, furthermore, used without any necessity. The Italians are even accused of having, from the air, bombarded a hospital.

But I must close this exposé. The Italo-Turkish war is a war of conquest, and as such condemned by the Peace Congress and ranked in the category of offenses against the right of nations. It must further be considered as a violation of the Treaty of Berlin of 1878, which, although it does not formally contain a guarantee of the territorial integrity of the Ottoman Empire by the contracting parties, has nevertheless the character of a pledge of this kind.

In Turkey, the war launched by Italy has had, as a

consequence, the arrest of the reorganization of the country and the arousing of grave interior dissensions, even civil war. And civil war in the Ottoman Empire may be followed by a general European conflagration. I shall not enter into the details of these events, though recalling what was written in the report of the 1st of September, 1911, namely, that Albania is a rampart the solidity of which depends on the fidelity of its inhabitants and the tranquillity of the country. The new government seems to be willing to give, finally, satisfaction to the claims of this province.

There are in the Balkans other circumstances to be pointed out. First, there is the tendency, now stronger than ever, of certain nationalities of the Ottoman Empire to form themselves into separate political groups. This process may easily not only provoke new civil wars, but also grave complications, because of the ambitions of which different Ottoman territories are the object. May it not be said, furthermore, that the partition of Turkey has already commenced? The situation presents striking analogies with that of Poland before its dismemberment. The Poles understood at last that internal disorder might gravely compromise their independence; they were going to second the efforts which the government was making in good faith to establish order. But Poland, well governed, would have been, because of the advanced spirit of the population, a bad example to the neighboring nations, subject to autocratic rule, and Poland was destroyed. What is taking place around Turkey? At the very moment when she has shaken off the yoke of an odious régime and is endeavoring to regenerate herself, projects of partition are arising on all sides.

Incidents which may bring on war have just occurred in the Balkans. In the case of Montenegro, the poorly defined border between this country and Turkey has been the cause of aggressions, and acts of armed hostility have taken place. The government of the Sublime Porte believed itself authorized to address an ultimatum to Montenegro, whose response was not satisfactory. Quite serious skirmishes have taken place, and a real war may break out if the friendly intervention of the powers does not succeed in settling the difference. Another incident, the explosion of a bomb in a Macedonian village, attributed perhaps falsely to Turkish revolutionists, occasioned disturbances which produced great excitement in Bulgaria, and provoked an outburst of the traditional sympathy of that country with Macedonia. In a great popular meeting held a little while ago at Sofia, Bulgaria was loudly urged to declare war against Turkey. The prudence of Czar Ferdinand will, without doubt, succeed in calming the over-excited spirits.

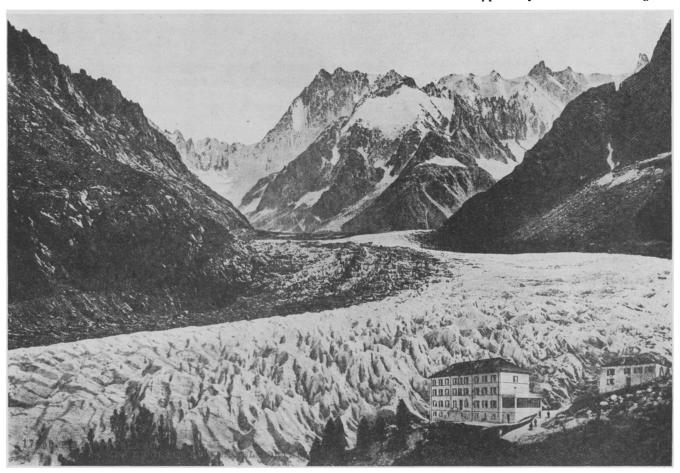
At Constantinople a rigorous investigation has been ordered and the punishment of the guilty promised. All these internal difficulties which seriously menace the peace of the world have caused a very interesting initiative to be taken. Count Berchtold, head of the Austrian ministry, proposes to secure a general pacification in the Balkans by counselling the Sultan of Constantinople to grant a certain amount of autonomy to the different nationalities scattered through the Ottoman Empire, and by bringing pressure to bear upon these to induce them, by reason of such concessions, to cease their agitation.

As regards the Italo-Turkish war, it is not known whether serious steps are being taken to put an end to it.

The alliances of some of the powers and the complicity of others take away the necessary authority from those who might intervene in a friendly way, but with firmness.

The Iberian peninsula is in a condition to produce anxiety for the future. In Portugal, the republican régime has continually to struggle against monarchical reaction. The latter would probably not be able to seriously endanger the peace of the country if it were not encouraged by the Spanish government, which permits bands of insurgents to be formed on its territory and allows them to consider Spain as a base of operations. This course is without doubt not as it should be.

of the future French protectorate. This latter creates, in fact, a new situation, and raises, in the matter of the rights of Spain, questions of incompatibility. The diplomats of the two States who have been joined by those of Great Britain have met to try to adjust these. The agreement has not yet been completed, and serious difficulties seem to have arisen. The most difficult point is the arrangement which ought to be made at the city of Tangier, the center of the Spanish interests. There is general agreement that this place should be internationalized; but the diplomats seem to be still far from agreement as to details, and Spain is raising questions whose solution is apparently difficult. She alleges,



THE FAMOUS MER DE GLACE, TO WHICH AN EXCURSION OF MEMBERS OF THE PEACE CONGRESS WAS MADE.

Spain finds herself entangled in the Moroccan trouble in a way which might easily produce conflicts. There is a Franco-Spanish Moroccan question which has not been settled, though this matter does not concern Germany. Spain has possessed for a long time in Morocco different rights which have been implicitly recognized by France and Great Britain, in the treaty concluded by these two powers the 8th of April, 1904, according to the terms of which the French government is invited to coöperate with the Spanish government and to take into particular consideration, as expressed in the convention, the interests which Spain holds because of her geographical position and her territorial possessions on the coast of the Mediterranean Sea. This clause was evidently inserted in the act of 1904 on the assumption

on her part, that certain promises have been made to her. France has opened to her neighbor on the south certain regions in the north of Morocco, and Spain, wishing to enter upon these without waiting for permission, has occupied a part of the coast, among others the cities of Sarrasch and El Ksar. This operation interferes with the protectorate of France, which, in order to be effective, must cover the whole of Morocco. But how can this be reconciled, in the case of the territories occupied by Spain, with the sovereignty of the latter? This is precisely the problem which diplomacy, in order to repair the mistakes which it has made, is forced to solve.

Before quitting Europe, it is proper to cast a glance at the physiognomy which it presents from the point of view of the future of peace. The national antagonisms are sharper than ever, and as they have in general cupidity as their object and motive, all means are used to satisfy insatiable appetites. The governments lend their fleets and armies, and the winner is he who establishes his commercial and economic influence the most widely. The political groupings formed by the so-called great powers interest themselves in this race for the golden calf as much, and even more, than in the national defense. More and more it becomes evident that they are supporting and nourishing animosity among the nations. The states which compose the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente seem to be conspiring incessantly against each other. They mutually inspire each other with a distrust which goes on increasing daily. An English statesman has declared that Europe owes to these political groupings the folly of armaments. At any rate, they have not yet been able to create anything except anarchy and disorder. They are a bane to the Old World. Possibly they will yet produce an evolution which will place them side by side and no longer in opposition to one another.

In England an opinion is heard which demands, instead of ententes and alliances, the reëstablishment of the European concert. The initiative of Count Berchtold, on the subject of which the other governments have been consulted, is to be, it is said, the first application of this new procedure.

Asia is undergoing, as much as Europe, the influence of these alliances and ententes, and since a good part of its territory is considered as a dependency of our continent, it goes without saying that the wars and acts of violence are not spared it. Internal dissensions caused in Persia by the governmental régime have furnished Russia with the ardently desired pretext for intervention, and the country has been invaded by the Cossacks of the Czar. The interests of Great Britain, who doubtless felt her authority menaced in Asia, seem to have been the object of arrangements between the two countries, and the penetration of Russia into Persia is now proceeding with a free hand. The régime which Russia proposes to introduce into the country is not yet clearly defined. Whatever it may be, Persia will suffer the loss or the diminution of her independence to the benefit of Russia in the north and to that of Great Britain in the south.

The memorable events which revealed to Europe the power of the Empire of Japan have not been without influence on China. Serious revolutions broke out in this country. The government was not able to withstand them, and the republic, as seemed impossible, was proclaimed in the middle kingdom. The new régime will, without doubt, have great difficulties to overcome. But it would be an error to suppose that China is not ripe for the republic. The best wish that one can make for it is that it may apply itself better than the ancient régime did to safeguarding the independence of the country and the nation. A China strong and knowing how to defend itself against all conquest or penetration, especially against the protectorate, will be a valuable auxiliary of universal peace.

It remains to point out the events in America which fall within the scope of this report. First of all, there is the revolution in Mexico. Gen. Porfirio Diaz having been obliged to retire from the presidency of the republic, the new government has not yet been able to bring all the country under its authority, and deeds of vio-

lence are daily committed by bands which are attempting to impose their dissenting will on the country. These might possibly have provoked foreign intervention, because of the dangers to which the life and property of American residents found themselves exposed. The government of the United States took energetic measures to prevent these perils, but abstained from intervention.

In Central and South America the question of the presidency of states gives rise only too often to intestine wars. There have been a great number of these since republics have been everywhere substituted for foreign domination. It seems, however, that the situation is improving. All these countries are aiming to develop themselves in the economic sphere, and understand that internal dissensions are a hindrance to progress.

The Senate of the United States has not done what the country, and, one may say, the entire civilized world, expected of it. It made, in the treaties concluded by the President with France and Great Britain, amendments which completely modified the essential character of these conventions. They are no longer unrestricted treaties of arbitration. I have heretofore explained that this attitude of the Senate was due to the rivalry between this body and the President. The issue of the debate which took place in the Capitol of the United States has been a general disappointment.

A singular coincidence! The great American Republic has perhaps already reason to regret that the treaties were not ratified, for a grave conflict has threatened to arise between it and Great Britain on the subject of the Panama Canal. Having to establish the conditions of maritime transportation through the canal, the House of Representatives of the United States voted the principle that American ships should not be compelled to pay tolls like those of other countries. It seems that this action was not permitted. The canal is subject to a special international régime prescribed by a convention adopted in 1901 between the United States and Great Britain, which prescribes, among other things, the following: "The canal shall be free and open to the ships of commerce and of war of all the nations which shall observe these rules (those fixed on October 28, 1888, for the navigation of the Suez Canal), on the basis of entire equality, so that there shall be no difference between the nations, or their citizens or subjects, in regard to the conditions and charges of traffic or otherwise. These conditions and charges shall be just and equitable."

The vote of the House of Representatives would certainly entitle Great Britain to put in claims for damages. But what would happen if either of these powers should refuse to submit the case to arbitration? The last news permits the hope that the vote will not be maintained as passed.

The Panama Canal seems to have created a certain anxiety in the State of Colombia, and there exists at the moment a slight coldness between that country and Washington. That comes, possibly, from the manner in which certain citizens of the North American republic think the Monroe Doctrine ought to be applied. The actual tendency seems to be to extend the doctrine as widely as possible. However fine and good and useful it may be, it ought not to serve as a pretext for the establishment of an international régime which would

be unjust and injurious to the superior interests of the nations as a whole. One finds in the United States many citizens who declare themselves opposed to the abuse of the Monroe Doctrine.

Having reached the end of this report, it is not for me to draw conclusions. But I may note the fact that if the organization of international justice and law, as also of the collectivity of the nations, is making some progress, this process is constantly hindered by the malevolent and immoral spirit of the great powers of Europe.

A. GOBAT.

BERNE, August 20, 1912.

The Peril of the Air.

By W. Evans Darby, LL. D., Secretary of the Peace Society, London,

[A paper presented to the Nineteenth Universal Peace Congress, Geneva, September 27, 1912.]

A new horror has invaded civilization. The growth of military aviation has taken place with such startling rapidity that the public generally have scarcely had time or opportunity to study its significance, and the application of the new science to war has been taken so much as a matter of course that they have not had the inclination to do so. The developments, however, have been so great, they have been bruited abroad with such trembling anxiety, and the press, as usual, has been so loudly persistent, that it is no longer possible to maintain an attitude of indifference. Even were this not so, the pacifists of the world would not wish to shirk their duty by avoiding the examination of a question which, more than any other connected with military warfare, is fraught with importance at the present moment, and is so ominous for the future prosperity and peace of the world.

GROWTH OF AVIATION.

Our prodigious progress in aviation is of very recent date. It belongs to the last three or four years; to be precise, since the brothers Wilbur and Orville Wright returned to the flying arena after a period of renewed experiments.

Each of the intervening years since presents a striking record. The current year, says F. A. Talbot, has been one of the most notable, and at the same time one of the most disastrous in the history of human flight. The very achievements, he says, show that the conquest of the air is by no means yet complete. This sounds paradoxical, but when the eyes are cleared of enthusiasm, and the problem is investigated dispassionately, this failure to progress is only too apparent. Experienced aviators, it is said, recognize that the problems which beset aviation in its earliest days are almost as many today. The history of motor-racing is taken as an illustration of inevitable slackening, and the terrible toll of the air in human life from day to day is appalling and discouraging. Astonishing progress has been made, but the victory over the air has not yet been won.

So stands the question of the growth of aviation, but it does not touch that which interests us most—the use of air-craft in war.

MILITARY AVIATION.

Already we have a beginning in that direction. To Italy belongs the undying, but execrable, renown of taking the initiative in the prostitution of the new science to the purposes of human destruction, or, as it is proudly claimed on her behalf, of demonstrating the practical value of aviation in war. The Times correspondent considerately adds, "It is, of course, true that the conditions have been specially favorable; but in any case it is already clear that no nation can afford to go to war with a marked inferiority in aerial strength." That sums up the whole situation. Italy has established the precedent; the rest must follow. It is a doubtful honor; it is a mad infatuation; but there it is. The rest are following with all their might. France comes first; early in 1912 the military authorities had 234 war aeroplanes at their disposal, 300 are being added to those in commission at the end of the year, and in 1913 and 1914 another 500 are to be purchased, until the French army has over 1,000 of the "fourth arm." Russia has decided to purchase 150 monoplanes. Germany does not, perhaps, possess more than 100 military aeroplanes, but the last year's maneuvers have impressed the authorities with the necessity for increasing the numbers, and with characteristic energy they are doing it. Six military aviation schools have been opened, and officers are also receiving training at civilian flying schools. A large number of aeroplanes have been ordered, and altogether Germany proposes to spend £740,000 (nearly fifteen million marks) on military aviation during the year. Great Britain, judging from the outcries of the "patriotic" press, was lagging very far behind. But a remarkable testimony is given by the Berliner Tageblatt's naval expert, Captain Persits, who writes, "The French and English are far ahead of us in aeronautics. In hydroaeronautics they struggle for honors, whilst we are not even in it as competitors." The official Larinerundschau says, "that although England has hitherto held back in respect to the 'fourth arm,' she now shows equal energy in making up lost ground, and her efforts are crowned with success, as is shown by the results achieved in a short time."

It is not necessary to go into details as regards the other civilized powers. They are all, or nearly all, in the running. One series of facts will show this. Not content with the budget expenditure on this "fourth arm," the people are appealed to in order to make up by charitable—otherwise called "voluntary" or "patriotic"—contributions for the weakness of the exchequer or the defects or tardiness of their government.

It is announced that the German national subscription for aviation, which is about to close, has reached, with the aid of Prince Henry's appeal to the patriotism of the German people, a total of £300,000 (or 6,000.000 marks). A report of the executive of the French National Committee of Military Aviation shows that the total received and promised, as published by the Matin. amounted on July 10 to about £146,768 (3,669,200 francs). In Italy, the King himself, as an example, subscribed 100,000 lire to the national collection. In Austria, the Minister of War put himself at the head of the national lottery for the purpose, and in Great Britain the "Aerial League of the British Empire" is making a national appeal for 1,000,000 shillings for